

Lecture 1 Pathology of Thrombosis

Topic	Key points (from your text)	High-yield anchors
Big picture	Blood coagulation is physiologic and essential for hemostasis and survival. It becomes pathologic when unnecessary clotting is activated → injury/harm.	Physiologic vs pathologic thrombosis
Core pathogenesis	Virchow's triad = 3 interacting causes of pathological thrombosis. A patient may show one, two, or all three . (Mnemonic given: SHE).	Stasis/turbulence + Hypercoagulability + Endothelial injury
Endothelium in normal state	Under basal conditions, endothelial cells create a non-adhesive, non-thrombogenic surface → protects from unnecessary thrombosis. Maintained by stable microenvironment: normal BP, normal laminar flow , and growth factors supporting endothelial integrity.	Normal endothelium is anti-thrombotic
Endothelium in pathological state	Endothelial injury → endothelial activation . Once activated, endothelium promotes thrombosis via increased expression of: pro-coagulant factors, adhesion molecules, pro-inflammatory factors , and chemokines/cytokines/growth factors .	Injury → activation → pro-thrombotic shift
Vascular wall response to injury	Injury affects endothelium + smooth muscle . Smooth muscle response: migrate from media → intima, proliferate in intima, produce ECM proteins . This thickens intima → narrows lumen → reduced flow.	Intimal thickening → luminal stenosis
Consequences of excessive healing	Healing can be pathologic: excessive intimal thickening → stenosis/occlusion → ↓ flow.	Ischemia → necrosis → possible infarction
Causes of endothelial injury	Listed causes: valvulitis, MI, atherosclerosis, traumatic/inflammatory conditions, hypertension, endotoxins, hypercholesterolemia, radiation, smoking , etc.	Atherosclerosis, HTN, smoking, MI (classic exam drivers)
Normal blood flow	Laminar flow = parallel layers with different velocities: fastest in center, slowest near wall . Keeps platelets central and away from endothelium → reduces thrombosis risk .	Laminar flow is protective
Turbulence: narrowed vessel	Thickened wall narrows lumen → chaotic direction/velocity → higher	Atherosclerotic narrowing →

	thrombosis risk. Atherosclerosis is classic example.	turbulence → thrombosis
Turbulence/disturbance: dilated vessel	Aneurysm → dilated wall → irregular + sluggish flow (disturbed flow) → promotes thrombosis.	Aneurysm-associated disturbed flow
Stasis definition & effects	Stasis = slower-than-normal flow. Major factor for venous thrombi . In stasis: reduced delivery of anti-clotting factors, thrombi become stronger/more stable, fibrinolysis weaker.	Stasis = venous thrombosis driver
Causes of stasis	Listed: atherosclerosis, aneurysms, MI (non-contractile fibers), mitral stenosis (atrial dilation), hyperviscosity (↑ PCV) and sickle cell anemia , etc.	MI, mitral stenosis, hyperviscosity
Hypercoagulability definition	Increased tendency to form clots vs normal population. Can be inherited or acquired.	Primary vs secondary hypercoagulability
Primary (genetic) hypercoagulability	Inherited mutations in clotting/anti-clotting factors. Factor V gene and prothrombin gene mutations are most common primary causes.	Factor V + Prothrombin (very high yield)
Secondary (acquired) hypercoagulability	More frequent than primary. Often multifactorial . Causes listed: immobilization, MI, AF/arrhythmia, surgery, fractures, burns, cancer, prosthetic cardiac valves , etc.	Cancer, immobilization, surgery, AF
Where thrombi form	Can develop anywhere in CVS: cardiac chambers, valves, arteries, veins, capillaries.	Location predicts trigger
Arterial/cardiac thrombi (trigger)	Begin at sites of endothelial injury or turbulence , usually superimposed on an atherosclerotic plaque.	Endothelial injury + atherosclerosis
Venous thrombi (trigger)	Occur at sites of stasis . Most commonly lower extremity veins (90%).	Lower extremities ~90%
Attachment & embolic risk	Thrombi are focally attached to underlying surface. The propagating portion is poorly attached → prone to fragmentation → embolus.	Propagation tail = embolic danger
Lines of Zahn	Gross/microscopic laminations: alternating pale platelet/fibrin layers with darker RBC-rich layers.	Distinguish antemortem thrombus from postmortem clot
Postmortem clots	Non-laminated (no Lines of Zahn).	No Lines of Zahn = postmortem

Mural thrombi	In heart chambers or aortic lumen. Definition: thrombus attached to wall of chamber/vessel.	“Mural” = wall-adherent
Cardiac vegetations	Thrombi on heart valves. Composition: fibrin + platelets + inflammatory cells ± microorganisms.	Valve thrombi = vegetations
Types of vegetations	1) Infectious (bacterial/fungal blood-borne) e.g., infective endocarditis → large, friable, destructive. 2) Non-infectious e.g., rheumatic; NBTE → small, bland, non-destructive.	Infectious = big/destructive vs NBTE = small/bland
Fates of thrombi	1) Propagation → more platelets/fibrin → obstruction. 2) Embolization → dislodge/fragment. 3) Dissolution → fibrinolysis (only in recent thrombi). 4) Organization & recanalization → inflammation/fibrosis; flow may partially restore or thrombus incorporated into thickened wall. 5) Superimposed infection → mycotic aneurysm.	5 classic outcomes
Organization (definition)	Ingrowth of collagen, ECM proteins, new endothelial cells, smooth cells, fibroblasts into fibrin-rich thrombus → permanent structural change.	Organization = permanent remodeling
Mycotic aneurysm	Infectious aneurysm. “Mycotic” = infection-related (not necessarily fungal). “Aneurysm” = abnormal dilation.	Infection + vessel wall weakening

Lecture 2 Embolism & Infarction

Topic	Key points (from your text)	High-yield anchors
Embolus definition	An embolus is a detached intravascular solid, liquid, or gaseous mass carried by blood to a site distant from origin.	Detached + travels
Emboli types (by composition)	1) Thromboembolism: 99% (dislodged thrombus) 2) Fat embolism 3) Air/Nitrogen embolism 4) Amniotic fluid embolism.	99% = thromboembolism
Quick mnemonic in text	Embolus moves like a FAT BAT . Causes list: **Fat	Air
Emboli types (by origin site)	Venous vs Arterial (systemic). Two circulation sides.	Venous vs arterial classification
Venous emboli: origin & target	Most venous emboli originate from lower limbs (esp. DVT). Target = lungs.	Lower limb DVT → lungs

Arterial emboli: origin & target	Most arterial emboli originate from heart chambers. Target most often lower limbs (75%).	Heart → systemic organs
General effect on blood flow	Emboli cause partial or complete vascular occlusion → ischemic necrosis (infarction) of downstream tissue.	Occlusion → infarction
Pulmonary thromboembolism origin	95% originate from deep vein thrombi of lower limbs (DVT).	DVT is the central source
Saddle embolus	Large embolus at bifurcation of pulmonary artery trunk → fatal.	Saddle = catastrophic PE
Paradoxical embolus	Venous → systemic through PFO (Patent foramen ovale), ASD (Atrial septal defect), VSD (Ventricular septal defect). “Paradoxical” because venous clot bypasses lungs via shunt → systemic arterial blockage (e.g., brain).	Right-to-left shunt concept
PE clinical outcomes (range)	Asymptomatic 60–80% (small). Can cause pulmonary infarction (large), pulmonary hemorrhage, pulmonary hypertension + RV failure (showers over long time), sudden death when >60% of pulmonary vessels obstructed.	Size + burden + chronicity matter
Determinants of thromboembolism outcome	Depends on: size, site of occlusion, number of emboli, acute vs chronic/recurrent.	4-variable exam framework
Symptoms linked to DVT/PE in text	Loss of consciousness may occur due to hypoxia when critical flow blocked. Calf/thigh pain in DVT from venous blockage + inflammation.	Clinical clue integration
AF → arterial emboli mechanism	Atrial fibrillation → abnormal atrial contraction + dilation → stasis in left atrium → thrombus → may embolize LA → LV → systemic → lodge in brain, kidneys, small intestine etc.	AF = classic cardioembolic source
Systemic (arterial) thromboembolism	80% due to intracardiac mural thrombi. Causes listed: 2/3 Lt ventricular failure, 1/4 Lt atrial dilatation, ulcerated atherosclerotic plaque, aortic aneurysm, valve vegetation etc.	Mural thrombi dominate
Major arterial targets	Lower limbs, brain, intestine, kidneys, spleen — essentially any organ with arterial supply.	Lower limb + brain high yield
Fat embolism definition	Fat globules in lung or systemic circulation.	Fat in vessels
Fat embolism causes	Long bone fractures; less commonly adipose injury (e.g., fat necrosis in acute pancreatitis).	Long bones = key trigger
Fat embolism mechanisms	1) Mechanical obstruction 2) Free fatty acid release → toxic endothelial injury + strong systemic immune response.	Mechanical + biochemical injury

Frequency vs syndrome	After skeletal injury, fat embolism occurs in ~90%, but clinical fat embolism syndrome (FES) <10% .	Common finding; rare syndrome
FES composition clue	FAT EMBOLUS = fat globules + hematopoietic cells.	Histology cue
FES clinical triad + others	Pulmonary insufficiency, neurologic symptoms, petechial rash; plus fever, anemia, thrombocytopenia. Symptoms 1–3 days after injury. Death ~10%.	Classic triad + timing
FES therapy	No specific treatment. Prevention + early diagnosis + supportive care. Support includes oxygenation/ventilation, stable hemodynamics, blood products if needed, hydration, DVT + stress GI bleed prophylaxis, nutrition.	Supportive care is mainstay
Air embolism core idea	Mechanical vascular obstruction.	Air blocks flow
Air embolism causes	Surgical/obstetric procedures, traumatic chest wall injury, decompression sickness (nitrogen) in deep-sea divers.	Iatrogenic + diving
Decompression sickness mechanism	High pressure dissolves nitrogen in blood; slow ascent allows nitrogen to leave via lungs; rapid ascent → nitrogen bubbles form → nitrogen embolism.	Pathophys favorite
Air embolism consequences	1) Painful joints (bubbles in muscles/supporting tissues) 2) Focal ischemia brain/heart 3) Respiratory distress (“chokes”) with lung edema/hemorrhage/atelectasis/emphysema 4) Caisson disease: bone emboli → ischemic necrosis, often femur, tibia, humerus heads.	“Bends” vs “chokes”
Amniotic fluid embolism (AFE)	Very rare, during labor (e.g., C-section). High mortality 20–40%. Mechanism: strong immune reaction + marked coagulation activation + possible mechanical obstruction. Entry via tears in placental membranes + rupture of uterine veins.	Obstetric emergency
AFE clinical picture	Sudden severe dyspnea, cyanosis, ARDS, hypotensive shock, then seizures, DIC, coma.	Respiratory collapse + DIC pattern
AFE microscopy	Fetal squamous cells, lanugo hair, fat, mucin in maternal pulmonary microcirculation.	Diagnostic autopsy clue
Infarction definition	Infarct = ischemic necrosis from arterial occlusion or venous drainage occlusion.	Arterial or venous blockage
Infarction causes	99% from thrombotic/embolic events. Others: vasospasm, atheroma expansion, extrinsic compression (tumor), vessel twisting (testicular torsion, bowel volvulus), traumatic rupture.	99% thrombo-embolic

Infarct morphology overview	Red (hemorrhagic) vs White (anemic); Septic vs Bland. Often wedge-shaped . Margins become defined with time.	Color + infection status
Histologic hallmark	Ischemic coagulative necrosis → eventually scar . Brain exception: liquefactive necrosis.	Coagulative except brain
Red infarcts: when occur	1) Venous occlusions (e.g., ovarian torsion) 2) Loose tissues (lung) 3) Dual circulations (lung, small intestine) 4) Previously congested tissues 5) Reperfusion after arterial occlusion.	Lung + dual supply + venous block
White infarcts: when occur	Arterial occlusions in solid organs: heart, spleen, kidney.	Heart/spleen/kidney
Septic infarcts	Occur when infarct is superimposed by infection: infected vegetations or microbes seeding necrotic tissue → infarct may become abscess with stronger inflammation.	Infected emboli → abscess risk
Outcome example	Kidney white infarct may be replaced by a large fibrotic scar.	Scar formation in solid organs
Factors influencing infarct development	1) Nature of vascular supply 2) Rate of occlusion (collaterals) 3) Tissue vulnerability to hypoxia: neurons ~3 minutes, myocardium 20–30 minutes 4) Oxygen content of blood.	Time-to-irreversibility
Classification trick Q&A in text	Pulmonary artery embolus is classified as venous embolism with lungs as target , because pulmonary artery carries venous blood from right heart to lungs.	Pulmonary artery ≠ “arterial origin” assumption
Can lung be a target of arterial emboli?	Yes: lung can be target of venous emboli (via right heart) or arterial emboli if coming from left heart reaching lung via bronchial circulation.	Dual pathway concept

Lecture 3 Pathology of Veins & Lymphatics

Topic	Key points (from your text)	High-yield anchors
Vessel wall basics	Tunica media: mainly smooth muscle , and in some vessels (especially elastic arteries) also elastic fibers.	Media composition
Artery vs vein (gross/functional)	Arteries: thicker wall , more rounded/rigid . Veins: thinner wall , less-developed tunica media , commonly collapsed.	Artery thick/round vs vein thin/collapsed
Normal vein physiology	Venous valves prevent backward flow and are aided by surrounding muscles to push blood and maintain function.	Valves + muscle pump

Varicose veins – definition	Abnormally dilated, tortuous veins due to prolonged ↑ intraluminal pressure and loss of vessel wall support .	Pressure + wall support failure
Varicose veins – most common site	Superficial veins of the leg are most typically involved.	Superficial leg veins
Varicose veins – symptoms/impact	Venous stasis + edema (simple orthostatic edema) and cosmetic effect (major complaint).	Stasis edema + cosmetic
Varicose veins – epidemiology	10–20% of adult males and >30% of adult females develop lower extremity varicosities.	Very common, female predominance
Varicose veins – risk factors	Obesity, female gender, pregnancy, familial tendency . Premature varicosities can result from imperfect venous wall development .	Obesity + pregnancy + family history
Varicose veins – microscopic morphology	Vein wall thinning, intimal fibrosis in adjacent segments, spotty medial calcifications (phlebosclerosis) , focal intraluminal thrombosis , venous valve deformities (rolling/shortening).	Valve deformity + wall thinning + phlebosclerosis
Varicose veins – complications	Stasis, congestion, edema, pain, thrombosis . Chronic varicose ulcers overlying varicosities in long-term patients. Embolism is very rare .	Ulcers + thrombosis; embolism uncommon
Thrombophlebitis & phlebothrombosis – terminology	Interchangeable terms in this lecture.	Know both names
Definition	Inflammation + thrombosis of veins .	Inflammation + clot
Most common site	Deep leg veins (90% of all) .	DVT dominance
Predispositions	Congestive heart failure, neoplasia, pregnancy, obesity, postoperative state, prolonged bed rest/immobilization .	Immobility + cancer + surgery
Local manifestations	Distal edema, cyanosis, superficial vein dilation, heat, tenderness, redness, swelling, pain .	Classic inflammatory DVT signs
Upper limb thrombophlebitis	Usually linked to local factors like catheter/cannula ; sometimes related to systemic hypercoagulability .	Think iatrogenic
Special type 1: Migratory thrombophlebitis (Trousseau sign)	Paraneoplastic hypercoagulability due to tumor procoagulant factors (e.g., colon, pancreatic cancer). Leads to multiple recurrent sites of thrombophlebitis (extremities, abdomen, internal organs) with intervals between episodes.	Cancer clue = Trousseau
Special type 2: SVC syndrome	Neoplasms compress/invade SVC; most common lung cancer . Causes marked	Lung cancer → SVC syndrome

	dilation of head/neck/arm veins + cyanosis. Key sign: Pemberton's sign (facial congestion/distress upon arm elevation).	
Special type 3: IVC syndrome	Neoplasms compress/invade IVC ; m/c highlighted: hepatocellular carcinoma and renal cell carcinoma (noted tendency to grow within veins). Findings: marked lower limb edema + distention of superficial collateral veins of lower abdomen ("medusa") .	RCC/HCC → IVC obstruction
Lymphatic system – core function	Returns excess interstitial fluid to venous circulation → back to heart. Obstruction → fluid accumulation → swelling + inflammation below blockage → lymphedema .	Obstruction → lymphedema
Major lymphatic pathologies in lecture	1) Lymphedema 2) Lymphangitis 3) Chylous accumulations.	3-item framework
Lymphedema – primary	Congenital due to lymphatic agenesis or hypoplasia .	Agenesis/hypoplasia
Lymphedema – secondary (more common)	Obstruction of previously normal lymphatics. Examples: malignant tumors, lymph node removal (e.g., mastectomy with ipsilateral nodes), post-irradiation, fibrosis, filariasis, post-inflammatory thrombosis/scarring .	Cancer + surgery + radiation + filariasis
Lymphangitis – definition	Acute inflammation from bacterial infections spreading into lymphatics .	Infection tracks lymphatics
Most common organism	Group A β-hemolytic streptococci .	GAS
Morphology & clinical picture	Lymphatics dilated and filled with neutrophils + monocytes . Red painful subcutaneous streaks + painful draining node enlargement (acute lymphadenitis) . Can progress into venous circulation → bacteremia or sepsis .	Red streaks + tender nodes
Chylous accumulations – definition	Milky lymph collections in body cavities from rupture of dilated lymphatics , typically obstructed by infiltrating tumor mass .	Tumor-associated lymph rupture
Types	Chylous ascites (abdomen), chylothorax (chest), chylopericardium (pericardium).	3 classic sites

Lecture 4 arteriosclerosis

Topic	Key Concepts (Integrated From All Lectures)	High-Yield Anchors (Bold)
Normal Vessel Structure	Arteries have thick tunica media → more smooth muscle + elasticity for pressure regulation. Veins have thin media , collapse easily, rely on valves + muscle pump .	Tunica media thickness, valves prevent backflow
Thrombosis – Definition	Pathological blood clot formation due to abnormal activation of coagulation.	Virchow's Triad (SHE)
Virchow's Triad	1) Stasis/Turbulence 2) Hypercoagulability 3) Endothelial Injury . Each alone can cause thrombosis; together ↑↑ risk.	Stasis, Hypercoagulability, Endothelial injury
Endothelial Role	Normal endothelium = anti-thrombotic ; injured endothelium = pro-coagulant (↑ adhesion molecules, cytokines, tissue factor).	Injury → activation → thrombosis
Arterial vs Venous Thrombi	Arterial thrombi → begin at injury/turbulence , superimposed on atherosclerotic plaque . Venous thrombi → due to stasis , especially lower extremities (90%) .	Arterial = plaques, Venous = stasis, DVT
Lines of Zahn	Alternating pale platelet/fibrin + dark RBC layers → only in antemortem thrombi .	Distinguishes antemortem vs postmortem
Fates of Thrombus	Propagation, Embolization, Dissolution, Organization/Recanalization, Mycotic aneurysm .	5 classical outcomes
Embolism – Definition	Detached solid, liquid, gas mass traveling in blood → occludes distant vessel.	Thromboembolism = 99%
Types of Emboli	Thrombus (99%), Fat, Air/Nitrogen, Amniotic fluid .	FAT BAT mnemonic
Venous Emboli	Originate mostly from DVT of lower limbs → target lungs → pulmonary embolism.	DVT → lungs
Pulmonary Embolism	Small: asymptomatic ; large: pulmonary infarct, hemorrhage ; recurrent: pulmonary HTN ; massive: sudden death when >60% blocked .	>60% obstruction = fatal
Saddle Embolus	Large embolus at bifurcation of pulmonary artery → fatal .	Classic killer PE
Paradoxical Embolus	Venous embolus crosses PFO/ASD/VSD → enters systemic circulation → stroke.	Right-to-left shunt
Arterial (Systemic) Emboli	80% from intracardiac mural thrombi (LV failure, LA dilation), targets: lower limbs (75%) , brain, kidneys, intestine, spleen.	Heart → systemic organs

Fat Embolism Syndrome	After long bone fractures: respiratory distress, neurological signs, petechial rash → appears 1–3 days later .	Triad: lungs + brain + rash
Air/Nitrogen Embolism	Caused by surgery, trauma, rapid ascent (diving). Nitrogen bubbles → “bends”, “chokes”, Caisson disease” .	Decompression sickness
Amniotic Fluid Embolism	Rare but lethal (20–40%). Causes DIC + ARDS + shock . Histology: fetal squamous cells, lanugo hair in mother’s lungs.	Obstetric emergency
Infarction – Definition	Ischemic necrosis due to occlusion of arterial supply or venous drainage. 99% from thromboembolism.	Coagulative necrosis (except brain)
Red vs White Infarcts	Red: venous occlusion, loose tissues (lung), dual supply, reperfusion. White: solid organs (heart, spleen, kidney).	Red = lung, White = heart/kidney
Veins – Varicose Veins	Dilated, tortuous superficial veins due to ↑ intraluminal pressure + wall weakness . Risk factors: obesity, pregnancy, female sex, genetics .	Lower limb superficial veins
Varicose Complications	Stasis, edema, pain, thrombosis, chronic ulcers. Embolism rare.	Chronic venous ulcers
Thrombophlebitis / Phlebothrombosis	Inflammation + thrombosis of veins. 90% in deep leg veins . Risk: surgery, cancer, pregnancy, immobility .	DVT inflammation
Migratory Thrombophlebitis (Trousseau)	Paraneoplastic hypercoagulability , especially pancreatic & colon cancers .	Trousseau = visceral cancer
SVC Syndrome	Compression by thoracic tumors (esp. lung cancer) → head/neck vein distention, cyanosis .	Pemberton sign
IVC Syndrome	Compression by HCC or RCC → leg edema + abdominal vein distention (“medusa”) .	RCC loves invading veins
Lymphedema	Primary (congenital) or secondary (tumors, mastectomy, radiation, filariasis).	Post-mastectomy lymphedema
Lymphangitis	Infection of lymphatics by Group A β-hemolytic streptococci → red streaks + painful nodes → may cause bacteremia/sepsis .	Red streaks = lymphangitis
Chylous Effusions	Rupture of lymphatics due to tumor obstruction → chylous ascites, chylothorax, chylopericardium .	Milky lymph in cavities
Arteriosclerosis – 3 Types	1) Arteriolosclerosis 2) Mönckeberg medial calcific sclerosis 3) Atherosclerosis .	Know the 3 patterns

Arteriolosclerosis	Small arteries/arterioles; caused by HTN & DM → wall thickening, luminal narrowing , end-organ ischemia → chronic renal failure.	HTN + DM → kidney ischemia
Mönckeberg Sclerosis	Calcification of tunica media , age >50, does NOT narrow lumen , visible on X-ray.	Media calcification without stenosis
Atherosclerosis – Definition	Most important form; intimal lesions (atheromas) with lipid core + fibrous cap → luminal narrowing → ischemia.	Intimal disease
Atherosclerosis – Requirements	Requires LDL deposition + inflammation .	LDL + chronic inflammation
Key Cells in Plaque	Macrophages, SMCs migrating from media, ECM production, extracellular lipid deposits.	SMC migration = hallmark
Plaque Types	Vulnerable: thin cap, large lipid core, inflammation → rupture risk. Stable: thick cap, smaller core.	Thin cap = rupture
Major Risk Factors	Age, male sex, smoking, hyperlipidemia, hypertension, diabetes, family history.	The Big 6
Additional Risks	Lp(a), hyperhomocysteinemia, metabolic syndrome, CRP, stress, obesity, inactivity, high-carb diet.	Lp(a) & homocysteine

Lecture 5 aneurysms and dissections

Topic	Key Concepts (Complete + Organized)	🔥 High-Yield Anchors (Bold)
Aneurysm – Definition	Localized abnormal dilation of an artery or the heart. Shapes: Saccular (portion of wall) vs Fusiform (circumferential).	Localized dilation, Saccular, Fusiform
True Aneurysm	All three layers intact (intima, media, adventitia). Examples: atherosclerotic, syphilitic, congenital, ventricular aneurysm after MI, Berry aneurysms.	All 3 layers intact, Berry aneurysm
Berry Aneurysm	Small saccular aneurysms at Circle of Willis due to congenital medial weakness ; dilation is permanent .	Circle of Willis, congenital wall defect
False Aneurysm (Pseudo-aneurysm)	Breach in vessel wall → blood escapes but is contained by extravascular connective tissue → pulsating hematoma . Causes: ventricular rupture after MI, vascular graft leak.	Pulsating hematoma, wall defect, not all layers
True Aneurysm – Shapes	Saccular: spherical outpouching, may contain thrombus. Fusiform: long segment dilation, circumference expanded.	Shape ≠ specific disease

Aortic Aneurysm	Can involve ascending, arch, descending, abdominal aorta . Large aneurysms behave like a mass and may rupture or compress surrounding structures (e.g., left recurrent laryngeal nerve → hoarseness).	High rupture risk, mass effect
Major Causes of Aortic Aneurysm	1) Atherosclerosis (most common) → intimal plaques compress media → ischemia → media thinning/weakening → dilation. 2) Medial degeneration: HTN, trauma, congenital (Berry), Marfan, vasculitis, mycotic aneurysm, immune injury.	Atherosclerosis, HTN, Marfan, media degeneration
AAA – Abdominal Aortic Aneurysm	Atherosclerotic aneurysm most common in abdominal aorta . Typically in men , rare < 50 years . Often below renal arteries and above bifurcation .	Men, below renal arteries, atherosclerosis
AAA – Pathogenesis	Risk factors: atherosclerosis, Marfan (fibrillin defect), vasculitis, connective tissue degradation, inflammation, mycotic infection.	Fibrillin defect, proteolytic damage, mycotic
AAA – Morphology	Size may reach 15 cm diameter, 25 cm length . Often saccular or fusiform , contains laminated mural thrombus , has media thinning .	Large size = high rupture risk, mural thrombus
AAA – Clinical Consequences	Rupture → catastrophic hemorrhage (risk ↑ when ≥ 5 cm). Embolism from mural thrombus. Obstruction of downstream vessels. Compression of ureters/vertebrae. Pulsating abdominal mass.	≥5 cm rupture risk, pulsatile mass, mural emboli
Mycotic Aneurysm	Vessel wall infection → weakening + dilation . Not limited to fungi. Causes: septic emboli , extension from adjacent abscess, bacteremia seeding atherosclerotic plaque.	Infectious wall weakening, infective endocarditis source
Syphilitic Aneurysm	Tertiary syphilis → immune-mediated obliterative endarteritis of vasa vasorum → ischemic injury of media → dilation of aorta and aortic root , → aortic regurgitation . Not a mycotic aneurysm.	Vasa vasorum obliteration, media ischemia, aortic regurgitation
Arterial Dissection – Definition	Intimal tear → blood enters media → separates layers, forms false lumen.	Intimal tear, false lumen
Aortic Dissection – Pathogenesis	Blood enters through tear → tracks through media under pressure. Causes: HTN (major), atherosclerosis, Marfan, Ehlers–Danlos, vitamin C deficiency, copper metabolism defects.	HTN = #1 risk, connective tissue defects
Consequences of Dissection	Rupture, massive hemorrhage, cardiac tamponade, weak distal pulses, limb ischemia,	Tamponade, rupture, limb ischemia

	aortic regurgitation, organ compression, mural thrombus.	
Clinical Presentation of Dissection	Sharp tearing chest/back pain, hypotension, shock, absent/weak pulses, rapid progression to death if ruptured.	Tearing pain radiating to back
Dissection Classification – Type A	Most common, more dangerous. Involves ascending aorta (\pm arch \pm descending). Requires urgent surgery.	Type A = proximal, ascending involvement
Dissection Classification – Type B	Distal to major branches; does not involve ascending aorta; begins distal to subclavian; managed medically unless complications arise.	Type B = distal, DeBakey III
Marfan Syndrome Role	Autosomal dominant mutation in fibrillin \rightarrow defective elastin synthesis \rightarrow weak media \rightarrow aneurysm + dissection. Manifestations: long limbs, lens subluxation, aortic disease.	Fibrillin defect, aortic dissection risk
Imaging for Diagnosis	CT angiography, MRI, Transesophageal echo, X-ray (widened mediastinum).	CT angiography = gold standard
Prognosis	Improved with rapid diagnosis, antihypertensives, surgery (graft, plication). Still highly fatal due to coexistence with CVD.	Early intervention saves lives

Lecture 6 hypertensive vascular disease

Main Topic	Detailed Summary (Complete Content)	High-Yield Points (Bold)
Definition of BP & Tools	BP measured via sphygmomanometer or digital monitor \rightarrow gives systolic + diastolic pressures .	Systolic, Diastolic
Types of Hypertension (Severity)	Benign HTN (95%) vs Malignant HTN (5%).	95% benign, 5% malignant
Types of Hypertension (Etiology)	Primary (essential) HTN = 95%, no identifiable cause. Secondary HTN = 5%, due to identifiable causes (e.g., renal disease, renal artery stenosis).	Essential 95%, Secondary 5%, Renal disease = most common secondary cause
Malignant (Accelerated) Hypertension	Systolic > 200 mmHg, Diastolic > 120 mmHg; rapidly progressive; fatal in 1–2 years if untreated. Causes renal failure, retinal hemorrhages, end-organ damage. Usually develops on top of pre-existing benign HTN.	>200/120, End-organ damage, Retinal hemorrhages, Renal failure
Hypertension Complications	Stroke, multi-infarct dementia, coronary atherosclerosis, LV hypertrophy \rightarrow heart failure, aortic dissection, renal failure, retinal hemorrhages.	Stroke, LVH, Aortic dissection, Renal failure

Essential HTN – Pathogenesis	Multifactorial: 1) Genetic factors (familial clustering, angiotensinogen polymorphisms , Ang II receptor variants , genes regulating renal Na ⁺ absorption). 2) Environmental: stress, obesity, smoking, physical inactivity, high salt intake.	Genetic + environmental, RAAS polymorphisms, Na⁺ absorption genes, Salt intake
Blood Vessels in HTN – General Morphology	HTN damages small arteries & arterioles → arteriolosclerosis . Two subtypes: Hyaline arteriolosclerosis and Hyperplastic arteriolosclerosis.	Arteriolosclerosis, Small arteries
Hyaline Arteriolosclerosis	Associated with benign HTN . Mechanism: plasma protein leakage across injured endothelium + ECM overproduction by smooth muscle . Morphology: homogeneous pink hyaline thickening, luminal narrowing.	Benign HTN, Protein leakage, ECM deposition, Luminal narrowing
Hyaline Arteriolosclerosis – Complications	Can affect any organ, but most severe in kidneys → nephrosclerosis → chronic renal failure . Other causes even without HTN: diabetes, elderly age.	Nephrosclerosis, Chronic renal failure, Diabetes
Hyperplastic Arteriolosclerosis	Occurs in malignant HTN . Morphology: Onion-skin concentric laminated thickening, redundant/reduplicated basement membranes, luminal narrowing, fibrinoid necrosis (necrotizing arteriolitis).	Malignant HTN, Onion-skin, Fibrinoid necrosis, Basement membrane duplication
Onion-Skin Appearance Explanation	Due to multiple duplicated layers of basement membrane , giving appearance of sliced onion rings; causes severe luminal narrowing.	Basement membrane duplication, Severe narrowing
Necrotizing Arteriolitis	Seen in malignant HTN . Fibrinoid necrosis of arteriolar wall; leads to acute ischemia.	Fibrinoid necrosis, Malignant HTN
End-Organ Damage in HTN	The organs most susceptible: Heart, Brain, Kidneys, Aorta, Retina . Mechanisms: arteriolosclerosis, infarction, hemorrhage, ischemia, accelerated atherosclerosis.	Target-organ damage, Heart–Brain–Kidney–Aorta–Retina
Summary of HTN Effects on Organs	Heart: LVH → HF. Brain: stroke, dementia. Kidneys: nephrosclerosis → renal failure. Eyes: retinal hemorrhage. Aorta: dissection risk ↑.	LVH, Stroke, Renal failure, Retinal damage, Aortic dissection

Lecture 7 ischemic heart disease

Main Topic	Complete Detailed Summary	High-Yield Anchors (Bold)
Definition of IHD	Group of syndromes caused by myocardial ischemia → imbalance between blood supply & oxygen demand . IHD ≈ Coronary artery disease (CAD) .	Ischemia = supply < demand, CAD = 90% atherosclerosis
Mechanisms of Reduced Supply	Atherosclerosis (90%), thrombosis, vasospasm, stenosis, shock, hypovolemia.	Atherosclerosis = #1 cause
Mechanisms of Increased Demand	Tachycardia, exertion, hypertension, stress, fever, ↑ contractility.	↑ HR = ↑ demand
Mechanisms of ↓ O₂-Carrying Capacity	Severe anemia, CO poisoning (CO competes with O ₂ for Hb). Least common cause.	CO poisoning, severe anemia
Main Clinical Syndromes of IHD	1) Angina pectoris (ischemia but no necrosis). 2) Acute MI (ischemia with necrosis). 3) Chronic IHD → heart failure. 4) Sudden cardiac death (SCD) .	Angina, MI, Chronic IHD, SCD
Angina Pectoris – Definition	Intermittent chest pain due to transient reversible ischemia (<20 min) , no myocyte death . Pain radiates to left arm, jaw, neck, epigastrium .	Pain <20 min, relieved by rest/nitroglycerin
Stable (Typical) Angina	Triggered by exertion ; due to critical stenosis >75% ; relieved by rest or sublingual nitroglycerin .	Critical stenosis, exertional, relieved by rest
Prinzmetal (Variant) Angina	Occurs at rest , due to coronary vasospasm , often in arteries without atherosclerosis. Treat with vasodilators (nitroglycerin, CCBs) .	Rest pain, vasospasm, CCB responsive
Unstable Angina (Crescendo)	Increasing frequency/intensity of pain, at rest , lasts longer. Cause: plaque rupture, partial thrombosis, distal embolization, vasospasm . Pre-infarction angina → one step before MI.	Pre-MI, plaque rupture, partial thrombus, rest pain
Myocardial Infarction (MI)	Necrosis of myocardium due to prolonged ischemia. Most commonly due to acute plaque rupture + thrombosis .	Necrosis, coronary thrombosis, LAD = 40–50%
MI Clinical Manifestations	Severe crushing chest pain radiating to left arm/jaw ; not relieved by rest/nitroglycerin ; weak rapid pulse, dyspnea, sweating , possible cardiogenic shock if >40% LV infarct.	Pain >20 min, not relieved, dyspnea, shock

Silent MI	MI without symptoms; seen in diabetics, elderly, ICU patients . Diagnosed by ECG + biomarkers .	Diabetics, elderly, silent infarct
MI Causes	Acute thrombosis over ruptured plaque . LAD occlusion = 40–50% of MIs.	LAD = widow maker
Diagnosis of MI	1. Symptoms 2. ECG changes 3. Biomarkers leaking from necrotic myocardium.	Symptoms + ECG + biomarkers
Cardiac Biomarkers	Troponins T & I = best markers . Rise 2–4 h, peak 24–48 h, remain elevated 7–10 days. CK-MB = 2nd best , helpful for detecting reinfarction . Others: myoglobin, LDH .	Troponin = gold standard, CK-MB for reinfarction
MI Histologic Evolution		
0–24 hours	Coagulative necrosis, wavy fibers , edema.	Coagulative necrosis
1–3 days	Neutrophil infiltration (acute inflammation).	Neutrophils
3–7 days	Macrophages remove dead cells → risk of rupture highest.	Macrophages, rupture window
7–14 days	Granulation tissue (loose CT + new capillaries).	Granulation tissue
Weeks → Months	Dense collagenous scar forms; permanent loss of function.	Scar, no regeneration
Major MI Complications		
1. Death	50% die before reaching hospital (usually ventricular fibrillation → SCD).	VF = most common cause of early death
2. Cardiogenic Shock	Occurs when >40% LV infarct ; mortality 70% .	Shock = worst in-hospital complication
3. Myocardial Rupture	3 types: free wall → tamponade , septal → VSD , papillary muscle → severe MR .	Tamponade, VSD, MR
4. Pericarditis	Occurs 2–3 days post-MI , immune-mediated; resolves.	Fibrinous pericarditis
5. Infarct Expansion	Stretching/dilation of infarct zone, especially anteroseptal MIs .	Expansion = thinning/dilation
6. Mural Thrombus	Due to stasis + endocardial injury → embolization risk.	Thromboembolism
7. Ventricular Aneurysm	Late complication , usually from large transmural anteroseptal MI ; wall becomes thin scar → true aneurysm . Complications: mural thrombus, arrhythmias, HF .	True aneurysm, thin scar, arrhythmias
8. Progressive Heart Failure	Progressive decline due to loss of myocardium + compensatory hypertrophy exhaustion.	Chronic IHD → HF

Sudden Cardiac Death (SCD)	Unexpected death within <1 hour of symptoms; due to lethal arrhythmia (ventricular fibrillation) . Most common underlying cause: CAD (atherosclerosis) . In young: HCM, myocarditis, valve disease, congenital coronary anomalies, conduction defects .	VF = mechanism, CAD = cause, young = non-atherosclerotic causes
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Lecture 8 valvular heart disease

Category	Complete High-Yield Summary	High-yield
Basic Concepts	Valvular disease = stenosis (failure to open) OR regurgitation (failure to close). Can involve cusps, annulus, chordae tendineae, papillary muscles . Can be acute (e.g., chordal rupture after MI) or chronic (calcification, scarring).	Stenosis = narrow; Regurgitation = backflow
Stenosis vs. Regurgitation	Stenosis → chronic process, calcification, post-inflammatory scarring → obstructed forward flow. Regurgitation → abnormal closure → backward flow → volume overload.	Stenosis = chronic; Regurg = acute/chronic
Clinical Clues	Murmurs; thrills (palpable murmur); signs depend on valve involved.	Murmur = hallmark
Congenital Valve Disease	Most common = bicuspid aortic valve (2 cusps instead of 3). Seen in 1–2%. Often silent early. Later → early degenerative calcification, aortic stenosis, LV hypertrophy, HF .	Bicuspid = most common congenital lesion
Why Bicuspid Valve Calcifies Early	Abnormal cusp geometry → ↑ mechanical stress → accelerated wear and calcification → premature stenosis.	↑ Stress → ↑ Calcification
Acquired Valve Disease – Overview	Mitral valve = most commonly affected (left-sided valves exposed to ↑ pressure & shear stress). Most common cause worldwide = rheumatic fever . Other cause = infective endocarditis (IE) .	Mitral = most affected; RF = #1 worldwide cause
Rheumatic Fever (RF) – Etiology	Immune-mediated , not an infection. Due to molecular mimicry : anti-Group A Streptococcus antibodies cross-react with heart, joints, skin, brain . Occurs after pharyngitis or skin infection .	Molecular mimicry, post-strep immune reaction
RF Epidemiology	Common in children (pharyngitis), especially where penicillin access is limited.	Children, low-resource settings
RF Pathogenesis	Type II hypersensitivity; antibodies against streptolysin O, DNase B . Time gap: symptoms appear weeks after infection .	Anti-strep antibodies
RF – Acute Phase	Occurs in 80% children . Manifestations: fever, migratory polyarthritides, carditis (can → arrhythmias, myocarditis, chamber dilation,	JONES major criteria

	functional MR), Sydenham chorea, skin lesions (erythema marginatum , subcutaneous nodules). Labs: ↑ anti-streptolysin O.	
Carditis in RF – Acute Morphology	Aschoff bodies = pathognomonic: foci of T-cells, plasma cells, activated macrophages (Anitschkow cells). Valve vegetations = small, sterile verrucae.	Aschoff = diagnostic
RF – Diagnosis	JONES criteria (not required in detail). Blood cultures usually negative (infection resolved).	Major criteria = JONES
RF – Chronic Phase	Occurs years to decades later . Chronic inflammation → scarring + calcification . Functional result = stenosis > regurgitation . Mitral valve most commonly affected → LA dilation → AF → mural thrombi → emboli.	Chronic RF = mitral stenosis
RF – Chronic Morphology	Thickened, fused cusps; commissural fusion; fish-mouth or buttonhole stenosis ; shortened chordae; calcifications. Aschoff bodies rare in chronic stage.	Fish-mouth stenosis
Progression in Chronic RF	Chronic scarring → hemodynamic obstruction, murmurs, CHF, arrhythmias, thromboembolism .	Stenosis → LA dilation → AF
Infective Endocarditis (IE)	True microbial infection of valves/endocardium. Produces friable, destructive vegetations containing organisms + thrombus + necrotic debris . Causes septic emboli and systemic complications.	Vegetations with organisms
IE Predisposing Factors	Congenital disease, chronic RF, prosthetic valves, catheters, immunodeficiency, IV drug use, septicemia. Dental procedures in high-risk patients can trigger IE.	IV drug use → tricuspid IE
IE Classification	Acute IE → highly virulent (e.g., Staph aureus), attacks normal valves, rapid onset, high mortality. Subacute IE → low virulence (Strep viridans), infects previously abnormal valves, slow onset, better prognosis.	Acute = S. aureus, Subacute = S. viridans
IE Clinical Features	Fever, chills, new murmur, embolic events, splinter hemorrhages, Osler nodes, Janeway lesions .	Fever + new murmur
IE Diagnosis	Blood cultures + Echocardiography (vegetation). Duke criteria exist but not needed.	Blood culture = essential
IE Complications	Septic emboli, abscesses, septic infarcts, mycotic aneurysms , valve destruction → acute regurgitation, HF, death .	Septic emboli, abscess, mycotic aneurysm
IE Morphology	Vegetations = large, friable, destructive . Most common on mitral and aortic valves ; tricuspid valve in IV drug users.	Bulky vegetations
Management of IE	Long-term (≥6 weeks) IV antibiotics ; valve replacement if needed.	IV therapy required

Lecture 9 cvs tumors

Category	Full High-Yield Description	Key Identifiers
Definition: Vascular Tumors	Diverse neoplasms derived from endothelial cells . Classified by biological behavior into benign, borderline (intermediate), and malignant .	Endothelial origin
Benign Vascular Tumors	• Contain well-formed vascular channels resembling normal vessels. • Lined by flat, normal-looking endothelial cells (minimal/no atypia). • No metastasis . • Most common example = Hemangioma .	Organized vessels, bland cells
Borderline / Intermediate Tumors	• Behavior between benign and malignant . • More cellular, cytologic atypia , increased proliferation. • Partly form abnormal channels; sometimes spindle-shaped cells. • Locally aggressive but rare metastasis . Example = Kaposi Sarcoma .	Atypia + limited aggression
Malignant Vascular Tumors	• Do NOT form well-organized vessels . • Marked atypia , pleomorphism, mitoses, anaplasia. • Infiltrative, destructive growth + metastasis. Example = Angiosarcoma .	Disorganized, aggressive, metastatic
Important Nomenclature	• –oma = generally benign. • Sarcoma = malignant mesenchymal tumor. • Hem-angi-oma = tumor of blood vessels . • Lymph-angi-oma = tumor of lymphatic channels (no blood). • Angiosarcoma = malignant endothelial tumor.	Prefix indicates vessel type
Hemangioma — General	• Most common benign vascular tumor . • Composed of blood-filled vessels . • Most common age group: infants & children . • Often present at birth. • Many regress spontaneously . • Most common location: head and neck . • 1/3 internal → especially liver . • Malignant transformation: very rare .	Infancy, spontaneous regression
Capillary Hemangioma	• Most common variant. • Affects skin, oral mucosa, lips . • Histology: capillary-sized vascular spaces . • Gross: strawberry red or bruise-like.	Capillary-like spaces
Strawberry (Juvenile) Hemangioma	• Seen in newborns, especially head & neck . • Appears at birth → regresses over months/years . • Excellent prognosis.	Birth + regression
Pyogenic Granuloma	• Rapid-growing pedunculated lesion on gingiva . • 1/3 have history of trauma. • Misnomer: not pyogenic, not granuloma .	Gingival, trauma-related
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Cavernous Hemangioma	Large, dilated vascular spaces ("caverns").• Common in deep organs , especially liver .• Does NOT regress spontaneously.• More clinically significant due to location.	Deep organs, large channels
Kaposi Sarcoma — Overview (Borderline)	• Vascular neoplasm caused by HHV-8 .• Requires immunosuppression to develop.• 4 types: Classic, Endemic (African), Transplant-associated, AIDS-associated .• AIDS-associated = epidemic KS , the most common HIV-related malignancy → AIDS-defining.	HHV-8 + immunosuppression
Kaposi Sarcoma — Pathogenesis	• HIV → ↓ T-cell immunity.• HHV-8 reactivation & cytokines → endothelial proliferation → tumor.	HIV + HHV-8 synergy
Kaposi Sarcoma — Clinical & Histology	• Red-purple skin plaques and nodules , typically distal lower limbs , spreading proximally.• Histology: Spindle-shaped endothelial cells , crowded; poor formation of vascular channels.	Spindle cells, purple lesions
Angiosarcoma — Overview (Malignant)	• Highly malignant endothelial tumor.• Sites: skin, soft tissue, breast, liver .• Aggressive, infiltrative, poor prognosis.	Aggressive endothelial malignancy
Angiosarcoma — Risk Factors	1. Chemical carcinogens (especially liver angiosarcoma): • Vinyl chloride, arsenic, Thorotrast .2. Radiation exposure (post-radiotherapy).3. Chronic lymphedema (e.g., after mastectomy → upper limb swelling → Stewart–Treves syndrome).4. Long-term foreign bodies (rare).	Vinyl chloride → liver
Cardiac Tumors — Overview	• Very rare, but location is critical .• Metastatic tumors are more common than primary .• ~5% of cancer deaths show cardiac metastasis.• Most common primary malignant = Angiosarcoma .• Benign tumors exist but are clinically important due to obstruction or embolization.	Metastases > primary tumors
Most Common Metastatic Source to Heart	Lung cancer.	Lung → heart
Clinical Significance of Cardiac Tumors	Depends on location, mobility, size, friability, patient age, and tumor biology .	Location determines symptoms

Cardiac Tumors — Key Features	Ball-valve effect: Pedunculated tumor moves with blood flow → intermittent obstruction of a valve. Embolization: Fragile pieces break → systemic emboli. Fever & malaise: Tumor releases IL-6 → inflammatory symptoms. Diagnosis: Echocardiography, CMRI. Treatment: Surgical excision for benign tumors; depends on type/location for others.	Stalk = ball-valve obstruction
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